881
[271] active and not to be lazy. She drinks only warm
[262] water. In the old days anything that she gathered
[263] anyone could come along and take. She couldn't eat
sweet or salt but Washo don't think eggs are the
same as meat."

(This last statement was in response to direct
[124] questions and does not reflect special Washo truths.
[262] In fact, all food appears to have been forbidden for
four days.)

[574] The family of the girl immediately prepares as
[202] much food as possible to feed the guests. One informant remembers in his youth that a family of a girl eligible for a dance would light a large fire part way up on Job's Peak to announce the event.

[778] The dance itself is carried out at night. Singing and hand-clapping accompany the dancing, which may go on all night. During the dance the girl carries a wand about six or seven feet long. The wand is made of a very light wood, often elderberry, and painted red with a native pigment.

[178] In the past, groups camped about Dresslerville staged their dances at the base of a prominent hill nearby. During the night the girl was required to run to the top of the hill and light four fires; this practice has been discontinued for many years, however, apparently as a result of white accusations that the Indians started range fires and also to avoid attracting curious whites.

About dawn one of the girl's male relatives ran forward and snatched the stick from her. He then ran with it into the hills and hid it in an upright position in some out-of-the-way place.

[356] The elderberry wand is a device used to insure
[824] the girl's continued agility and lightness of foot. As long as the hidden stick remains unbroken the girl will remain straight and agile.

[824] After the stick was taken away, an older female relative took a small amount of ash on a whisk of sage, and dusted the nude girl on the head, arms, and legs. This ritual was accompanied by an informal [782] prayer that the girl not suffer pains in her head, arms, or legs. She was told: "I am doing this early in the morning so that you will get up early in the morning and work hard." The whisk was then thrown [431] into the crowd, along with a gift, which today is usu[178] ally a bit of money. Food or beads were apparently used in the past.

[515] After the dusting, a basketful of water was brought forward and the girl was bathed. The basket was then thrown into the crowd. This was considered a high point of the celebration. After she was bathed, a few [302] dabs of native pigment were placed on her chest and face.

The ceremony above was described as the "real way to do it . . . the way they did it in the old days."

881 The Carson Valley Record Courier reports a pu-
178 berty dance held in the summer of 1919 in which at least some of these activities were observed (although the reporter thought he was attending a betrothal dance). Some two-hundred Indians were in attendance. There were no fires, only lanterns and flashlights. The participants had taken up a collection and purchased watermelon, ice cream, cake, pie, bread, and meat for the [574] feast. The food was served (to the surprise of the reporter) on a long table with plates. About midnight two girls appeared in the center of the dancing circle carrying long wands.

In 1926 Lewis witnessed a girls' dance near Minden

[P 381, A]

224 [539] I've heard that they cook it and eat it . . . not only here but up north. After they get the rifle they get to killing bears around here but hardly ever hear of dividing up the bear meat."

[825] This last remark appears to be significant as all informants emphasized that Indians shared food equally. Thus a statement made voluntarily that bear meat was not shared suggests different attitudes about bears.

[302] Another informant adds the detail that when the bear left his lair, the companions of the man who entered the den would block the entrance so the bear could not return. The first man to place an arrow in the animal could claim it and get the hide. This informant also added at this point: "It's funny that the fella who went inside was just an ordinary fella [emphasis mine]." He also insisted that after a bear was killed the hunting party painted their faces black. Other informants claimed not to know of this or said such painting was done when a mink was killed but they did not know why.

[539] [848] One traditional story (Dangberg) sheds a bit more light on the bear. In this tale a group of Washo were camped near a band of Paiute who challenged the Washo to fight. Instead of fighting, the Washo drove a bear from its den and killed it and thus defeated the Paiute.

[124] I had all but given up the pursuit of information on the bear, being convinced that my informants either honestly did not know any more (the bear having been relatively rare in this area for a good many years) or were unwilling to discuss something of an extremely sacred nature, when a chance remark suggested at least part of the explanation.

224 554 [764] A pioneer white resident who had lived in Alpine County, California, for ninety years casually mentioned that every Indian man who was buried during his boyhood was wrapped in a bearskin shroud. This, coupled with an earlier mention of "rough" men having bearskins, suggests that the killing of a bear represented the ultimate in Washo bravery and the possession of the skin conferred extra powers on the owner. The rifle made such acquisitions much less hazardous and in the late nineteenth century it had become common for Indians to own a bearskin cloak, which became their most prized possession and was buried with them.

[789] [764] Stewart's element lists show no evidence of any formalized bear cult among the Washo. However, Smith's notes, which Stewart used, report a bear shaman who impersonated a bear (2558). Certainly the bear was one of the spirits who could give power to a man destined to become a shaman. Bear shamanism is reported only for the Fish Spring Valley Paiute by Steward and for the Tago and Wada Northern Paiute by Stewart. These three groups constitute the only ones having formalized bear ceremonialism of any sort in the Basin. The bear dance and a note about impersonating bears (Steward 1941, pp. 344, 322) suggest that formalized bear ceremonialism came into the Basin from the Rocky Mountains via the Ute and Bannock. However, Kroeber reports awe of the bear, special euphemisms for them, and ritualized secrecy about hunting them among the Miwok which seem more closely related to Washo behavior. Bear impersonators among the Battle Mountain Paiute were credited with invulnerability in war, which is reminiscent of the use of a bear-hide cloak by Washo "rough men." Although it is not possible to make any conclusive statement about the role of the bear in the supernatural life of

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[P.382, B]

222 527 787 791 [211]

"This prayer[1] fella [Captain Jim] lived at Double Springs all year round. He would have a dream telling him when to have a meeting. He was what you would call a religious man. He would get someone he could trust and send out a long, tanned string of hide with knots in it. For every day until the meeting there was a knot and every day the messenger untied a knot so the people would know how many days they had until the meeting.

"All the men came and hunted for four days, and the women would start gathering pine nut. They would hang up the game to let it dry.

"The prayer wouldn't eat meat during those four days but he could drink cold water, and some lady would cook him pine nut.

"Every night they would have a dance. On the fourth day everybody would bring the food they had and put it in front of the prayer, and then he would pick some man who was fair [just] and the food was divided a little before sunrise. If you have a small family you get less, if you have a big family you get more."[2]

[782]

"Then the prayer makes a prayer something like this: 'Our father I dream that we must take a bath and then paint. Even the childrens . . . [we must] wash away the bad habits so we won't get sick from the food we have in front of us!'

"Then everybody go to the river . . . no matter if there was a little ice on the water, and take a bath. If they was not near the river they bathed the kids from baskets at Double Springs. The prayer he prayed for pine nut, rabbit, and deer."

222 527 791

Susie Dick, an ancient Washo woman who claims to have reached the century mark in 1950, recalls that Captain Jim was her mother's sister's son and that she called him brother. He was a big man in a figurative if not a literal sense. He wore eagle feathers on his head and arms. He had red trousers made out of a blanket with feathers on the sides of the legs. As she remembers him at these ceremonies: "He would scare you to death." The assembled Washo brought pine nuts, deer meat, mogal [Indian tea], and much other food. Captain Jim prayed and gave a sermon, urging everyone to drink water and avoid liquor, and supervised four nights of dancing.

222 527 114

Judging from the age of these two informants, these meetings, which they claim were attended by all the Washo, were held between 1880 and 1900. Most Washo agree that these large meetings were the way "they did it in the old days." However, "the old days" appear not to be aboriginal but the late nineteenth century, when the Washo experienced a brief period of seminunity and prosperity.

[756]

Rupert, the psychologically oriented shaman comments, "Hell, them northern Washo didn't come down to Double Springs very much. They got their pine nuts southeast of Reno. Captain Jim he was only a big man to them Carson Valley Washo. He didn't have nothing to say to the northern bunch."

222 527

Despite this, it seems clear that during the last part of the nineteenth century large numbers of Washo from the various areas did, in fact, gather at Double

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[1] Used in an adjectival sense. In the references below prayer is used nominally.

[2] No matter how reluctant aged Washo may have been to discuss other aspects of the past, they become eloquent about any occasion on which food was plentiful. They describe in minute detail the kinds and amount of food at a feast although they cannot remember the time, place, or those present.

● [124]

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[P.355, A]

II. WASHO SOCIAL ORGANIZATION

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A number of changes have taken place in Washo social organization since the end of the aboriginal period: the form of marriage has changed from sororal polygyny to monogamy; the system of kinship terminology is apparently changing, as indicated by the existence of a set of alternate kinship terms; the sororate and levirate have been abandoned; and a weak system of agamous moieties has been lost. Other elements of social organization appear to have been fairly stable, e.g., rule of residence, patterns of descent and inheritance, and form of the family.

The analysis of Washo social organization given in this chapter is based on the investigations of Barrett (1917), Curtis (1926), Kroeber (1907; 1917), Lowie (1939), and Siskin (1933), and upon the following kinds of data which I gathered in the field. First, the most reliable elderly informants were intensively interviewed about all aspects of social organization both past and present. Second, kinship schedules were obtained from seventy informants ranging in age from ten to over eighty. In addition, brief life histories and census data were collected in the course of the genealogical interviews. The life histories provided information on forms of marriage. Residence rules were determined both from the census material and from the life histories, since both kinds of data are necessary to establish residence rules adequately (Fortes, 1949; Goodenough, 1956; Murdock, 1958). Finally, sociometric data using family visiting patterns as the criterion were collected with the thought that, if any incipient unilineal kinship groups were present, they might be discoverable from the pattern of interfamily visiting.

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The methods used to determine change in social organization were the same as those used by Bruner (1955), Eggan (1937), Gough (1952), Nett (1952), Schmitt and Schmitt (n.d.), and Spoehr (1947). The writings of earlier investigators and interviews with older informants supplied information on changes in residence rules, kinds of kinship groups, and forms of marriage. Changes in the system of kinship terminology were determined by comparing the variant usages contained in the large sample of modern kinship schedules with what was thought to be the aboriginal Washo kinship terminology. For the Washo, the aboriginal terminology may be established with relative confidence because the early kinship schedules collected by Kroeber (1907; 1917) and Lowie (1939) agree closely with each other and with the terminological system used by the majority of modern Washo.

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Terminological change has a restricted meaning here. It refers only to changes which result in a new type of terminological system. Since the widely used classifications of kinship systems are based on the consanguine relatives of ego's generation and the first ascending and first descending generations (Spier, 1925; Lowie, 1928; Murdock, 1949), a change in the nomenclature of cousins or aunts and uncles is significant whereas change in terms for grandparents' siblings or affinal relatives is not significant. The genealogical interviews conducted in this research dealt primarily with relatives critical in defining the type of kinship terminology.

[124]

[P 359, A]

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ALTERNATE TERMS

Terminological change was determined by comparing modern usages with the standard kinship system. In the course of seventy genealogical interviews, at least a few variant kinship usages could probably have been collected during aboriginal times. However, the conditions of modern Washo life make variant usages in genealogical interviews almost inevitable. Some informants speak Washo poorly and may guess at terms; others do not understand English well and may misunderstand the investigator's questions. The problem is to separate the alternate usages due to mistakes and misunderstandings from the ones which may indicate that the terminological system is changing.

[P.359, B]

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Two criteria are available for this purpose. First, usages arising from change in the terminological system should occur more frequently than other "alternate" usages which appear to represent erroneous information. Second, the alternate terms of the new, emerging kinship system should form an internally consistent system.

Analysis of the Wasko genealogical data showed the following alternate usages.

1. Thirteen informants called some or all of their cousins by terms distinct from the sibling terms. The terms used are numbered 12, 13, 14, and 15 in table 1.
2. Five informants called their brother's children and sister's children by a single term.

[P.359, C]

TABLE 3

Incidence of Washo Kinship Usages in Ego's and Adjacent Generations

Kinship usage*	Age group of informants							
	10-19 (10)†	20-29 (13)	30-39 (7)	40-49 (12)	50-59 (8)	60-69 (6)	70-79 (4)	80-89 (3)
Siblings								
Standard	12	12	7	12	8	6	4	2
Term unknown	2							
Miscellaneous	3	1						
Cousins								
Standard	3	3	4	8	7	7	4	
By own age	4	4	1	1	1			
Alternate	3	3	1	3	3	3		1
Term unknown	8	6	2		1			
Miscellaneous	1			2				
Uncles								
Standard	6	11	6	10	7	6	5	2
Alternate	3							
Term unknown	7	1				1		
Miscellaneous				1				
Aunts								
Standard	8	8	6	10	7	7	4	2
Term unknown	6	1	1					
Miscellaneous		3						
Nephews and nieces								
Standard	9	8	6	11	8	6	5	2
Alternate	1	2	2					
Term unknown	2	2						
Miscellaneous	1	1			1			
Father and mother								
Standard	13	13	7	13	8	6	5	2
Term unknown	2							
Son and daughter								
Standard	1	9	6	9	7	5	4	2

*The meanings of "standard" and "by own age" are clear from the text. "Term unknown" means the informant did not know the term. "Alternate" refers to the terms of the new terminological system. "Miscellaneous" includes all alternate usages regarded as nonsignificant; these are listed in the text. If a single informant gave different kinds of usages (e.g., standard and alternate) for a single kind of relative (e.g., cousins), he was counted twice. If he gave more than one different kind of "miscellaneous" response for any one kind of relative (as for example to call one aunt "grandmother's sister" and the other aunt "great-grandparent"), he was counted only once.

†The number in parentheses is the number of informants in the age group.

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3. Three informants called their mother's brother and father's brother by a single term.

Two alternate usages were given by two informants: mother's brother's child was called brother's child, and older brother was called younger brother. A considerable number of alternate usages were given by only one informant: father's sister was called grandmother's sister, father's sister was called great-grandparent, mother's sister was called grandmother's sister, father's brother was called older brother, brother's son was called younger brother, mother's sister's son was called sister's child, and older sister was called younger sister. One woman used the male speaking term for brother's child instead of the female term. One informant used brother's child (man speaking) for sister's son and brother's son, and sister's child for sister's daughter and brother's daughter. This is what Schmitt and Schmitt (n.d., p. 43) call a "loose translation," that is, the Washo terms have been equated with the English nephew and niece terms.

The three alternate usages which occur most frequently appear to represent change in the terminological system. They form a consistent system: the new terminology is of the lineal type in all generations. The alternate cousin terms and the terminological merging of brother's child and sister's child show a significantly higher frequency than all other alternate usages. The merging of father's brother and mother's brother occurs only slightly more than other, nonsignificant alternate usages; but it is included with the other two primarily because it conforms to the trend toward a lineal terminological system in the three generations under study.

The alternate terms appear to represent a new system of kinship terminology rather than survivals from an older system. From the breakdown of Washo kinship usages given in table 3, it can be seen that the alternate uncle and nephew-niece terms are used by individuals in the younger age groups; and this leads to the inference that they are recent. The alternate cousin terms are spread rather evenly throughout the generations, but they too appear to be part of a new terminological system. This is indicated from the terms used for children of cousins. Older people generally use the terms meaning brother's child and sister's child in spite of the fact that they no longer call their cousins siblings. Younger people tend to use the cousin terms for the children of cousins. The terms for cousins apparently are first changed in ego's generation, and the change is then extended to the first descending generation. Thus the use of the alternate cousin terms is becoming more firmly embedded in the terminology. Another reason for believing that the cousin terms are part of a new kinship system is that the older people who use them state that sibling terms are also correct whereas the younger people are unaware that sibling terms may be used. The greater frequency of the alternate cousin terms compared to the alternate nephew-niece and uncle terms and their greater age as indicated by their occurrence among older persons is in accord with Dole's observation that when terminological patterns change, the cousin terms change first (Dole, MS, p. 428). The Washo data indicate that terms of the first descending generation may be the next to change, followed by changes in the parental generation.

Most people who use the standard cousin terms declare that the alternate cousin terms are incorrect.

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subsequently patrilocal, 8 neolocal, and 1 matrilocal. I have counted a single marriage more than once if the couple shifted residence more than once. For example, if a couple lived for two years with the wife's parents, then for some time with the husband's family, and finally by themselves, they were counted as initially matrilocal and subsequently patrilocal and neolocal. Of the first marriages not initially matrilocal, 11 were patrilocal, 10 matrilocal (permanently and not just initially), and 9 neolocal.

The various kinds of residence arrangements are scattered randomly with respect to the age of informants. This is a critical point, for the neolocal marriages were not specifically reported by the earlier investigators. Although Lowie says that a couple moved after the death of the wife's parents, he does not specify the new location of the couple. Yet the fact that neolocal marriages occur as frequently among older people as among younger indicates that they are not a recent innovation.

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Data on 11 second and subsequent marriages are contained in the genealogies and life histories. Three of these were initially matrilocal; and of these, 1 was subsequently patrilocal and 1 neolocal. Of the second marriages not initially matrilocal, 3 were patrilocal, 4 matrilocal, and 5 neolocal. As was true of first marriages, the various kinds of residence arrangements of second and subsequent marriages were distributed randomly with respect to the age of informants.

To trace the history of a number of Washo marriages, as has been done above, describing them as patrilocal or matrilocal or neolocal without regard for the length of time spent under the various rules, gives a somewhat distorted picture of Washo residence, for it emphasizes unduly the "neolocal" residences. Actually, almost all couples live near their parents or other close relatives the greater part of their lives. Occasionally, a family may live for a few years with no close relatives near by. For this reason some marriages have been classed as neolocal. In the matter of residence rules, the normative statements of Lowie's, Curtis', and my informants give a better picture of the essential nature of Washo residence than a statistical count. Residence may best be described as bilocal. There is no evidence that the rule of residence was different in prewhite times.

DESCENT AND INHERITANCE

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Descent was basically bilateral. Personal property was not inherited, for it had to be destroyed at death. Pine-nut picking rights descended bilaterally. A person also had picking rights on his spouse's land, but these rights were terminated at the death of the spouse. Certain offices may have descended from father to son. Barrett (1917, p. 9) says that each village had a hereditary chief. In former times, the office passed from father to the eldest son; more recently, he says, the office was filled by the selection of the most appropriate individual regardless of relationship. Barrett also states that the rabbit chief was a hereditary official, but this is disputed by Lowie. Neither shamans nor antelope charmers inherited their positions.

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The aboriginal Washo system of inheritance fits well with the American bilateral system and has changed only slightly since the coming of the whites. One change is that people can now dispose of their property by a will. This is particularly important with regard to in-

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The informant is provided with slips of paper containing Washo kinship terms written quasiphonetically for all the relatives he possesses in first ascending, ego's, and first descending generations. These, of course, differ from person to person. The informant is then asked to arrange the slips of paper in a column in response to each of the sixteen questions. The relative ranking highest in the behavior questioned is to be placed at the top of the column; the remainder are to be ranked in descending order, with the one ranking lowest in the behavior in question to be placed at the bottom. The first few questions are for practice and designed to acquaint the informant with the kind of response desired. The investigator asks "which of your relatives weighs most . . . is tallest . . . is oldest" or some other similar question, and instructs the informant to arrange the slips of paper, helping him if necessary. Once the "set" of the experiment is established, the questionnaire is administered. The questions are explained to the informant, using examples if necessary; they are not read mechanically. The informant's responses are noted for each question, and the paper slips are shuffled before the next question is given. The result is a test protocol ranking a person's relatives in each of the sixteen categories of interpersonal behavior.

Several precautions must be observed if the test results are to attain their maximum reliability. First, the investigator must determine the opportunity the informant has had for knowing and interacting with the relatives to be included in the test. If there has been a reasonable opportunity for interacting with a relative, he is to be included in the test even if the informant has had little interaction with him. If there has been no opportunity for interaction, the relative should be excluded. For example, if a relative has lived close to the informant for many years, he is to be included even though the informant rarely sees him. In this case, the opportunity for interaction exists, and the fact that none has taken place may be an important feature of the role behavior. However, if a relative died when the informant was a baby, or lives at a great distance, or is feeble-minded, he is to be excluded, for the informant has had no opportunity to interact with him.

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Second, the same interpreter should be used for all informants. This should not be taken too literally, for feuds and hard feelings can make the presence of particular interpreters unpleasant to informants. In addition, if the interpreter is related to the informant, this might tend to influence the informant's responses. It is probably best to use an interpreter who is not related to the informant. This precaution could not be observed for two Washo informants owing to the prevailing rules of courtesy. These two informants were slightly deaf and it was necessary to shout at them. Among the Washo, it is considered impolite for a person to shout at a nonrelative. Therefore, relatives had to be used as interpreters.

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Third, the testing situation should be standardized. This means that as few relatives as possible should be looking over the informant's shoulder while he is taking the test. An easy way to shed distracting relatives is to conduct the interview in an automobile.

Fourth, the questions should be asked randomly. I suspect that there is some contagion from one question to the next. This is enhanced if, for example, all the questions probing dominance are asked one after the other. By randomizing the questions, the investigator

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can break up a developing pattern in an informant's responses. This precaution was not followed in the present study because its importance was not realized until the field work was almost completed.

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Finally, the sample tested should be random. This is probably the most difficult of all the precautions to observe, for many persons will refuse to work with the investigator. Approximately twenty Washo refused with varying degrees of firmness to work with me. Of these, probably half would have eventually weakened because I could have brought pressure to bear through some of their relatives. This still would leave a sizable number of adamant refusals. In small, homogeneous groups like the Washo, the lack of a random sample is probably less serious than in larger, more heterogeneous societies.

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In the present study, the above-mentioned precautions were carried out less fully than they might have been because the importance of some of them became clear only as the work progressed. The first four may be observed with no particular difficulty. I regard numbers one and four as particularly important. The problem of obtaining a random sample presents the most difficulty, but the effort must be made so that statistically valid inferences may be drawn about the larger population.

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The role profile test deals only with the qualitative characteristics of roles. It indicates that a role ranks high in teaching or helping or fondness and low in submission or hostility. But roles also differ in their content. For example, both mother and father help a person, but the nature of the help differs. The mother cooks for an individual and mends his clothes; the father helps him to fix his car or to build a house. The role profile test tells us only that something is taught, but it does not tell us what is taught. The content of the teaching or helping or punishing distinguishes roles as much as the qualities of the roles. Among the Washo, the differences in the content of roles generally follow sexual lines. For the most part, this study does not deal with these differences in content; but it will be seen that content must be taken into account in distinguishing between the roles of the members of the nuclear family who are of opposite sex and in the same generation.

THE SAMPLE TESTED

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The role profile test was administered to 47 of approximately 280 Washo living in the vicinity of Gardnerville, Nevada, and Woodfords, California. An effort was made to select a sample with an equal number of men and women, and one in which the young, middle-aged, and old were represented fairly equally. However, the persons within these categories were not selected randomly. The sample contains 20 men: five are thirty-five years of age or younger; 9 are from thirty-six to fifty-four years of age; and 6 are fifty-five years of age or older. The sample contains 27 women: 10 are thirty-five years of age or younger; 11 are thirty-six to fifty-four years of age; and 6 are fifty-five years of age or older. No one was tested who was under fourteen or who had less than seven different kinds of relatives. This reduced the number of young people who could be tested. The reluctance of the older Washo to mention dead relatives meant that many of the older people would not give all their relatives in the genealogical interviews, or would re-

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fuse to be interviewed at all. This reduced somewhat the number of old people in the sample. Two people could not finish the test: one old woman, after completing four questions, burst into tears at the mention of a dead relative; and a young woman could not finish the last six questions, for she rejected the idea that any of her relatives could be hostile. The questions these women finished are perfectly usable and have been included in the analysis.

The sample includes 4 blind people, 4 others with whom I had to use interpreters, and 8 people who were illiterate. None of these 16 persons could manipulate the slips of paper by themselves. They could take the test, for they retained a mental list of the relatives involved and verbally directed the investigator as to the arrangement of the slips. The order of relatives was read back to them and they continued to make adjustments until they were satisfied. They handled the test fairly well, but not so well as people who could arrange the slips of paper themselves. This fact probably increases the variability of the protocols.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

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The purpose of this analysis is to reduce the data to a form in which the patterns of role behavior become apparent, and their similarities and differences can easily be compared. Since the sample was not chosen at random from the population, inferences drawn from it about the larger population are, statistically speaking, dangerous.

Two factors make the handling of the data troublesome: (1) the number of relatives contained in the particular protocols is different, ranging from seven to fourteen; and (2) protocols with the same number of relatives often contain different kinds of relatives. The ordinary, nonparametric methods of treating ranked data assume that each individual ranks the same set of objects. Another possible method of analysis involves the construction of preference matrices for all relatives in all sixteen behavioral categories. This idea was discarded because the size of the matrices, together with the variability and the smallness of the numbers in the cells, did not seem to promise sufficient returns for the work involved.

Consequently, the question of quantifying the data was studied. Because of the unequal number of relatives in the various protocols and because the relatives were often different in kind, some sort of metric seemed unavoidable. Consider a specific category of behavior and assume that the characteristic which determines a person's rank can be measured numerically and is distributed normally in the population. Let X equal the numerical value of the characteristic. Then X is a normally distributed random variable which, for convenience and with no loss of generality, we can assume has mean zero and variance one, that is, approximately 68 per cent of the population have values of X between -1 and +1. Thus, there are a few individuals who have the characteristic to a marked positive degree leading to an almost certain rank of one in any comparison, and a few individuals who have the characteristic to a marked negative degree leading to an almost certain lowest rank.

Now suppose that you have a judge and you take a random sample of n individuals from the population and ask him to rank them. Further, suppose that you repeat this indefinitely with samples of n. Now consider

A RECONSTRUCTION OF ABORIGINAL WASHO SOCIAL ORGANIZATION[1*]

by Stanley A. Freed

The reconstruction of aboriginal Washo social structure presented here is based upon the publications of earlier investigators and upon data that my wife and I collected in the course of about six months' field work in the summers of 1952, 1953, 1956 and the winter of 1956-57. The major sources on aboriginal Washo social organization are: Barrett (1917), Curtis (1926), Kroeber (1907; 1917), Lowie (1939), and Siskin (1941). Our field data consist principally of interviews with 70 informants who ranged in age from 10 to over 80. Genealogical data, kinship terminology, census material, and brief life histories were collected from all informants. The testimony of our older informants regarding aboriginal conditions and the earlier published reports almost always agree, and thereby make possible a reconstruction of aboriginal Washo social organization that is probably relatively sound. The changes in Washo social structure since aboriginal times will be mentioned here, but a discussion of the probable causes of these changes has been omitted because such an analysis has appeared in an earlier paper (Freed, 1960).

In addition to a description of kinship terminology, residence rules, marriage patterns and other customary categories of analysis of social organization, this paper will attempt to describe role behavior among kinsmen in aboriginal times. This description is based on data from role profile tests taken by 47 Washo in the winter of 1955-57, and therefore pertains to modern role behavior (Freed, 1960, 365-70). The degree to which these patterns of modern role behavior resemble those of aboriginal times cannot be determined with any certainty because the published sources contain virtually no information on role behavior; also, attempts to elicit statements of aboriginal role behavior from elderly informants were unproductive. However, it is possible to make a tentative estimate of the degree to which modern and aboriginal role behavior resemble each other on the basis of a general appraisal of Washo acculturation. The Washo are still a recognizable group; they speak their own language; and, in modified form, they practice a number of aboriginal culture patterns (Freed, 1960). For these reasons we can assume that role behavior among the modern Washo gives some indication of aboriginal role behavior.

Kinship Terminology

The kinship terminology of the aboriginal Washo may be established with relative confidence because the terminologies collected by Kroeber (1907; 1917) and Lowie (1939) not only agree closely with each other but also with

*Notes are at ends of papers.

Residence Rules

Residence rules were established from the published reports, the statements of our older informants referring to aboriginal times, and the census data and brief life histories provided by our group of 70 informants. Lowie reports that residence was matrilocal until the death of the wife's parents, when the couple moved. Another of his informants says that residence following marriage could be either matrilocal or patrilocal with a slight preference for the former (Lowie, 1939, 308). Curtis reports initial matrilocality of a few weeks, after which the couple went to the husband's family. Many couples lived in either place alternately (Curtis, 1926, 97). On the basis of the information given by Lowie and Curtis, Washo residence is therefore bilocal with a tendency toward initial matrilocality.

Our informants report three kinds of residence: patrilocal, matrilocal, and neolocal. According to our older informants, no compelling rule governs the choice of residence. Most people spend the greater part of their lives near the parents or other close relatives of the husband or wife; neolocal residence occurs, but is usually of short duration and therefore relatively unimportant. Neolocal residence is reported as frequently by our older informants as by our younger ones, indicating that neolocal residence is not a recent innovation. Our data do not support a tendency toward initial matrilocality. Of 48 marriages reported by our informants, 17 were initially matrilocal. Since only three kinds of residence choices occur, on the basis of chance one-third of them would be matrilocal. The 17 initially matrilocal residence choices that occurred in the sample of 48 marriages do not differ sufficiently from the 16 that would be expected from chance alone to suggest a tendency toward initial matrilocality.

It is not entirely clear whether or not data from the modern Washo indicate that changes have occurred in Washo residence patterns since aboriginal times. I believe that none have occurred -- that the apparent differences between the reports of Lowie and Curtis and the data collected by my wife and myself arise from differences in field procedure. Lowie and Curtis interviewed only a few people, whereas we interviewed many. Residence data gathered from a large number of people will show greater variability than the normative statements of a few informants, especially in the absence of a compelling rule. Modern Washo residence is best described as bilocal, and probably no change has occurred since aboriginal times (Freed, 1960, 360-1).

THE PERSISTENCE OF ABORIGINAL CEREMONIES AMONG THE WASHO INDIANS[1]

by Stanley A. and Ruth S. Freed

In the 1950's the Washo were observing, in modified form, five of their six aboriginal ceremonies. These were the ceremonies at birth, girl's puberty, death, the shaman's curing rite and the annual pinenut dance. The dance and ceremonies before a war party set out and after its return apparently disappeared shortly after the beginning of permanent white settlement due to the suppression of warfare by whites.[2] Of the five surviving ceremonies, three were rites of passage regularly observed whenever circumstances made them appropriate: the ceremonies at birth, girl's puberty and death. These three ceremonies give every indication of surviving for the foreseeable future. The other two ceremonies, the pinenut dance and the shaman's curing rite, appear to be on the verge of extinction. The annual pinenut dance had already essentially disappeared by 1952, and the shaman's curing rite probably will have disappeared by the early 1960's. This paper will describe the five ceremonies that have survived into the 1950's and will discuss possible reasons why three seem capable of survival while two are on the point of disappearance.

The descriptions of aboriginal Washo ceremonies are reconstructions based on the testimony of our informants and on earlier published reports. Hank Pete claimed he was born in 1882, Bertha Holbrook said her year of birth was 1885. Nancy Emm did not give her age but she appeared to be as old as Holbrook. Mooney (1928, 20) considers 1845 as the end of the aboriginal period in the region, the first permanent white settlement was in 1851. This means that when our informants were children some Washo were still living who were familiar with the relatively undisturbed Washo culture. Hank Pete's grandmother was alive when he was a boy, and he apparently learned a good deal from her. The most useful sources on aboriginal Washo ceremonies are Curtis (1926), Lowie (1939), and Stewart (1941). Cartwright (1955) has described a modern girl's puberty dance. Freed and Freed (1963) have described the shaman's curing rite.

The Washo may have had an annual mourning ceremony but the evidence for its existence is scanty. Barrett (1917, 9) states "... there is an annual mourning ceremony, or 'cry,' accompanied by a big feast." He gives no further details. Curtis (1926, 97) reports "Annually there was a memorial ceremony which appears to have closely paralleled the California rite. Objects were burned while the people wailed, and a feast was provided by the chief. Effigies of the lamented dead are said to have been burned, as in

[1] [2] [footnotes appear on p. 39 -- Analyst]

A CONFIGURATION OF ABORIGINAL WASHO CULTURE[1/4]

by Stanley A. and Ruth S. Freed

Beliefs in supernatural power (wegelfyu) and in ghosts are two elements that occur in several patterns of aboriginal Washo culture. These two beliefs are prominent in culture patterns concerned with the etiology and cure of diseases; they also occur in war, social control, funerals, child rearing and hunting. Ghosts and supernatural power are usually associated with the psychological condition of fear. Because these culture elements are widely distributed among the patterns of Washo culture, they function as a unifying or integrating force. Such relationships among culture patterns arising from the presence of common elements Nadel calls "logical consistency" (Nadel, 1951, 238-65).

If a cultural configuration is defined as a statement of a cultural regularity, usually with accompanying psychological states taken into account, which serves to integrate many of the culture patterns of a society, then fear of supernatural power and ghosts is a configuration of Washo culture. Because the individual Washo can manipulate power, and to some extent ghosts, for either good or evil, the fear of supernatural power and ghosts is often a fear of people who are known to have, or suspected of having, power; therefore, the configuration, fear of supernatural power and ghosts, is often equivalent to a fear of people.

This paper will describe the characteristics of supernatural power and ghosts in Washo culture; it will analyze the functions of these two elements in all culture patterns where they occur, thereby showing that they give logical consistency to Washo culture; and it will indicate how recognition of the configuration, fear of supernatural power and ghosts, helps to explain features of Washo behavior the reasons for which are not otherwise easily perceived.

The Washo culture here described is a reconstruction of aboriginal conditions. It is based primarily upon the statements of elderly people whom we consider reliable informants. Their testimony is usually internally consistent; they generally agree with each other, and their descriptions of Washo culture patterns closely resemble those of neighboring tribes which are also thought to be aboriginal (see especially Park, 1938, and Whiting, 1950). Bertha Holbrook and Henry Rupert claim to have been born in 1885 and Hank Pete in 1882; Nancy Emm did not give her age but looked as old as Holbrook. Mooney (1928, 20) considers 1845 to mark the end of the aboriginal period in the region. This means that when Emm, Holbrook, Rupert, and Pete were children, some Washo who were still living were familiar with the relatively undisturbed Washo culture.

1/ [footnote appears on p. 54 -- Analyst]

SOCIAL FACTORS IN HYPERTENSION AMONG THE WASHO[1]

by Norman A. and Freda L. Scotch

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Essential hypertension, accounting for 85 to 95% of all hypertension, is a disease of unknown etiology. Many factors have been studied in relation to its development, among them, 1) heredity, 2) constitution, 3) diet, and 4) social and psychological stress. It is unlikely that any single factor is wholly responsible for hypertension, and medical scholars currently view the disease from a multi-causal framework.

For at least three decades physicians have suspected a relationship between social factors and the presence or absence of hypertension, or elevated blood pressure. This suspicion has not been buttressed by substantive research, at least until recently, so that systematic research on the possible relation of social factors to the disease is highly desirable. On the other hand, cross-cultural studies of blood pressure measurements have been carried out among many societies throughout the world. Though these studies are not always strictly comparable for a variety of reasons (e.g., different criteria for hypertension, different instruments, sampling problems, etc.) they do give some indication, at least, of the distribution of blood pressure levels throughout the world. Thus one can rate societies on the basis of mean blood pressure levels. Furthermore, one can refer to actuarial studies of the normal limits of blood pressure levels in order to evaluate whether or not the mean levels are "pathologically" high; that is, whether such levels are indications of increased morbidity and mortality.

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This paper reports the findings of a pilot study undertaken by the authors among the Washo Indians in the summer of 1954. The whole project was conceived as a small-scale forerunner of a later, larger study to be conducted in South Africa, the results of which have been published elsewhere (Scotch, 1960). Because of the exploratory nature of the Washo research, plus certain methodological difficulties, the findings must be interpreted with caution.

Methods

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Material for the analysis that follows comes chiefly from interviews conducted among Washo adults during which certain social data were collected (religion, employment, education, etc.). Blood pressure determinations were

126 Blood pressure determinations were
141 made by the senior author at least three times during each interview, at five
124 minute intervals. Heights and weights were also determined. Interviews
were conducted in the homes of respondents.

124 It was hoped at the outset that each adult member of the three Washo
114 communities of Dresslerville, Woodfords and Carson City would be included in the survey. However, the pressures of time limited the series to 100 persons, representing approximately 50% of the adult population of these three communities. All but two or three of the Washo contacted agreed to participate in the study. Nonetheless, the possibility that the interviewed group was biased in some manner, such as being more geographically accessible and therefore socially "different" from non-contacts, suggests that results be interpreted with caution.

147 For the analysis that follows, a diastolic blood pressure, taken during
128 the initial interview, of 90 mm. Hg. or more was defined as an indication of hypertension. Tests of significance used in the analysis are based on Chi squares or T-tests. Findings significant at or beyond the 10% level of confidence are reported.

Results

147 The mean blood pressure levels of the Washo studied are set out in
158 Table I by age and sex. It will be noted that in this sample blood pressure increases with age, that the males have higher pressures in the younger ages and the females higher pressures in the older ages. Further, Washo blood pressures are high in terms of the criterion traditionally used as an indication of hypertension -- a reading of 90 mm. Hg. or more for the diastolic -- as indicated by the fact that the mean pressures, particularly of the older groups, are either very close to, or above, the upper limits of "normal."

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secure and prepare these (hooked pole, roasting of nuts, carrying basketa), mano and metate; twined basketry techniques and basket form (e.g., winnowing trays); temporary brush house; antelope hunting method by 'charming'; private ownership of clumps of pinon trees."

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Washo winter use of the highlands had been of research interest in recent years. In an archeological survey report Heizer and Elsasser (1953, 18) state that "permanent occupation at elevations over 5500 feet in prehistoric times would be hazardous or impossible." Continuing the project, Elsasser (1960, 26) considered 4000 ft. the approximate dividing line between summer and winter habitation for the California side, and he stated that "in aboriginal times . . . little or no land, even at the highest elevations was unknown to the Indians." From ethnographic evidence Freed (1954, 1) stated in reference to Lake Tahoe (6275 ft. elevation), that "if there was to be no pine nut crop, a family might choose to winter at the lake."

The Freed Survey of Lake Tahoe

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Freed (1954) conducted a survey of Washo habitation sites in the Lake Tahoe area by interrogation of Washo informants. The map accompanying the present paper gives the location of sites discussed and mapped by Freed. The sites are numbered 1 through 31 (see note 2 for further discussion of the map).

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Freed's site #6 is a deposit of red clay near the lake; #10 is at Rubicon Springs (the mineral water of which was used for internal disorders), which was on a trade route into central California; #16 is a cave at the foot of Stanford Rock where hunters sometimes stayed; #17 is a camp among oak trees; #27 (26-Do-1) is the cave at Cave Rock used for shelter; and #28, #30 and #31 were resting places rather than campsites. The rest of the sites were used primarily in connection with fishing, although hunting and gathering were additional considerations. Freed (1954) says:

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> "The Washo spent the summer months fishing in the streams around the lake, each family moving to another river whenever it saw fit but usually confining itself to a particular section of the lake's perimeter . . . the camps were usually in open spaces close to the lake shore. . . . A camp might consist of five or six circular windbreaks (gado), each housing a family.

[342]

231 not very good and entered only the minor events. Usually the Washo quite openly express the view that horses are a bother, and they seem to enjoy making remarks about the amount of meat the white man's prize mount might provide. On one occasion a Woodfords Washo had allowed a white man to pasture two horses in a fenced meadow, but he expressed relief that they were 177 gone. It might be mentioned that this man's half-Paiute son, exposed to the 233 agricultural curriculum of public school, wants to raise a sheep in the family meadow. His Washo father chooses to ignore the boy's importuning, but his Paiute mother encourages his ambition.

233 Only one Washo man appears to have attempted to raise cattle. Sur-
554 prisingly, he is a very traditional young man, respected by Peyotists, non-Peyotists, mountain, and valley Washo alike. He is perhaps the only Washo today who might conceivably develop into an effective and generally accepted tribal leader. His small scale cattle operation is conducted on an allotment near Woodfords, on the banks of the Carson River. He has purchased a 246 small tractor with a cutter bar attachment and hay rake. He cuts hay for his 313 stock in his own meadows and those owned by his friends. In exchange for 347 the hay he assists his friends in gathering winter wood. This small cattle 178 enterprise is as yet too young to allow prediction of its eventual success or failure. It is being watched with patronizing interest by local whites. The Washo, however, view the experiment as an unusual departure from expected Washo behavior. A few grudgingly admit that it might yet point a new direction for their people.

123 It should be mentioned that I found Washo attitudes, when asked about
124 pets or animal husbandry, to be embarrassment, curt, almost hostile, reluc-
231 tance to comment, or confusion. Otherwise loquacious informants were apt to lapse into speechlessness when asked about domestic animals. Informants who claimed an impossibly total recall concerning times past (often years before their birth) seemed to experience memory lapses when asked about horses or cattle. A man who discussed with enthusiasm the minute details of the life and habits of game animals lapsed into embarrassed silence when asked why he kept a rabbit in a hutch near his house. In fact, his only response to the question was to disclaim ownership and state that he was keeping it for a friend.

224 As stated earlier, not all Washo hunt, but almost all men retain a
225 lively interest in hunting and wild animals. One informant, generally conceded by other Washo to have hunting medicine, approached a discussion of native fauna with the enthusiasm and attention to detail of a zoologist. He invariably referred to the various species as if he were using a personal name, speaking of Wolf, Bear, Coyote, Deer, and using a personal pronoun. With obvious enjoyment he would describe the intelligence of various animals he

grasses or other plants. The Washo were well aware that pigweed, an important seed crop, grows profusely in areas that have been burned over, but apparently no attempt was ever made to burn areas to encourage growth of the plant. 241

Domestic Animals

We must assume that the Washo knew of domestic animals among the Spanish and Indians of the coast (see Cook [1960, 24]) on Indian horse tribes in California), and in all probability among the Shoshoni, Ute and Bannock to the east. However, Washo tradition is without mention of the introduction of horses. A specific incident, which could not have occurred earlier than the 1840's, was related by my informants and was reported to Lowie (1939, 3). A cow, or ox, strayed from a wagon train and was found by a party of Washo. The Indian response was characteristic of Washo response to livestock ever since. The animal was led, ridden, packed, teased, and then slaughtered and eaten. This single incident constitutes the only reference to domestic animals in the folklore of the Washo. 177 231

Questioning informants about Washo use of livestock proved to be one of the more tedious and unrewarding areas of investigation. Informants described long journeys undertaken in the past century, and only the most persistent questioning revealed that the trips were made with a wagon and team. The Washo still take great pride in their own and their ancestors' ability as pedestrian travelers. Even today, 5, 10, or 15 mi. walks are undertaken quite casually by many Washo, particularly middle-aged and older people. The earliest mention of Washo in connection with white livestock in the historical sources is a newspaper account of an incident that occurred in the 1850's. A group of Washo ran off a number of horses belonging to some white people attending a dance in Washo Valley. The guests broke off dancing, mounted the remaining horses, and set out in pursuit. Less than 2 mi. from the dance hall the posse found the horse thieves busily engaged in eating the stolen animals. Shots were fired and the Indians scrambled into the darkness. There is an undertone of humor in stories of this nature. White men are revolted by horse eating and are contemptuous, disgusted, amazed, or merely amused by a people who see horses only as meat on the hoof. Moreover, a lack of concern with the possible punishment for thievery seemed so unusual to white men that it was humorous rather than enraging. Nonetheless, the whites in Washo Valley tended to view the Washo as being more hostile than in other areas. During the last half of the 19th century, scattered newspaper references make it clear that at least some Washo owned and rode horses. Generally, news accounts suggest that most Washo were still [124] [492] [484] 175 177 231 648 [262] 231 [175]

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178 that the shift has been gradual, with each adjustment a relatively minor one
231 when contrasted to the stage immediately preceding it.

On the other hand, the adjustments needed to adopt animal husbandry as a basis or even important adjunct to the Washo economy would have required at one time or another a major shift in orientation, the abandonment of certain aboriginal practices, and the adoption of many new skills and values. This major shift the Washo did not make, continuing instead their gradual adjustment to changing conditions until they became inextricably involved in the socio-economic system of the area, and no longer in a position to undertake any large scale experiments in husbandry.

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231 In questioning informants about domestic animals and the earlier relationships between domestic animals and the Washo, one trend becomes increasingly clear. The Washo are for the most part uncomfortable when involved in such a conversation. Description of the details of their behavior in this regard must perhaps await psychological testing, but it is clear that for the most part this is an experience they find uninteresting and unpleasant.

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825 The explanation of this attitude may well lie in that area of Washo
773 culture which appears to have survived most completely. The Washo world
[77] view and related attitudes about the supernatural and the nature of the world
[177] are clearly aboriginal and have been little affected by white contact (Downs,
[171] 1961b). An integral part of these aspects of Washo culture is a view of the nature of the animals man encounters in this world.

The Washo view of the animal kingdom is similar to that of many other Indian tribes in the West. Animals are the product of acts of creation essentially similar to that which produced man. At one time the prototypes of the animals lived as part of the human social system, conversing and interacting with mankind. As essentially the same class of being as man, animals are subject to many of the same laws as man, and are the possessors of power. Thus, to be a successful hunter one must have more power than the animals he hunts and at the same time he must propitiate them so that they will allow themselves to be killed for mankind's benefit. Thus the Washo view animals as a combination of fellow, powerful magician, and willing sacrifice. As such, animals must be treated with respect and viewed with awe.

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825 Much of this attitude is summed up in the Washo usage of the word
231 <u>musĕge</u>, which in its simplest translation means wild beast or dangerous beast. However, further probing of the many connotations of the word reveals that this is applied to any hunted animal, large or small, which eludes or outwits the hunter. Thus a bear is inherently musĕge, but a deer, or even a squirrel, is musĕge only if he manages to show his superiority to

14:Stewart E-5 (1936-1938)1944 NR13 Northern Paiute NR13
Washo NT20

may suffice to distort the impressions of a cult or cause it to be overlooked entirely is demonstrated by the fact that both Park, in 1934 and 1935, and I, in 1936, failed to learn that the peyote cult had been present in 1930 among the Northern Paiute. Even after discovering the cult's previous existence, I obtained fragmentary and contradictory information concerning it. One impression was received from a man at Nixon, another from a woman at Bishop, about two hundred miles away, a third from Indians at Fallon and at Walker River; all had to be interviewed before even the semblance of a true picture emerged.

To account for the acceptance of new cults, previous students have pointed out the similarities between the indigenous and the introduced religion. When native institutions are investigated years after their establishment, a cultural analysis is perhaps the only means of obtaining clues to the reasons for acceptance. Occasionally, however, faith in such analysis has led ethnographers to rely on it when more exact data were available. That the indigenous culture influences acceptance or rejection cannot be denied, but when Indians participating in the same culture react differently toward new cults, it is necessary to search for additional factors.

Recognizing the sources of error in studying the diffusion of a religion after it has become well established, I was impressed with the opportunity, rare in the United States, to investigate the Washo-Paiute peyote cult only two years after its introduction and with nearly all the participants available for questioning. From the first interview it was clear that the Washo–Northern Paiute Indians were sharply divided in their opinions concerning peyote; consequently, it was necessary to go beyond a cultural analysis.

It was difficult to obtain accurate figures on participation. Several times I was told that "nearly everyone" in a certain Indian community belonged, only to find upon visiting that place that this held for a very small percentage. To get correct data, I copied from the official government census rolls the names of all adults (fifteen years of age and over) from the principal communities where meetings have been held. I checked the roll, name by name, with peyotists, nonpeyotists, government employees, and other white men to ascertain the status of each individual. In interviews with members and nonmembers in these communities, I always inquired for other peyote members and for those most opposed to it. From nearly every family in Dresslerville, Wellington, Yerington (including Campbell Ranch) Mono Lake, Bridgeport, and Coleville I interviewed at least one member. I also obtained the names of all families represented at two peyote meetings I attended: at Mono Lake in July, 1938, and at Carson City, October, 1938. In all, I procured information concerning peyotism from 43 active peyotists, 31 apathetical inactive peyotists, 18 antagonistic inactive peyotists, 35 unconcerned nonpeyotists, 56 antagonistic nonpeyotists, and 32 Indian Service officials, missionaries, ranchers, merchants, and other white men somehow directly concerned with the Indians. These 215 interviews varied from statements such as "I don't know anything about peyote and I don't care to know" to an interview with proselyter Ben Lancaster which lasted four days.

HISTORY OF WASHO-NORTHERN PAIUTE PEYOTISM

First Contacts

The Peyote religion was introduced to the Washo and the Northern Paiute Indians in October, 1936, by Ben Lancaster. Contrary to the belief general among ethnologists and Indian Service employees that this is their first experience with

14:Stewart E-5 (1936-1938)1944 NR13 Northern Paiute NR13
Washo NT20

compatibility explanation of this situation. That 14 per cent of the Indians near the center of peyotist activity accepted the cult prohibits the conclusion that it was culturally incompatible; on the other hand, a majority opposition proves that cultural compatibility alone would not insure its general acceptance.

Questions naturally arise from this lack of uniformity in participation. What makes some Indians accept and others reject the new religion? Do peyotists form a distinct cultural or social subdivision of the society? Do they have common characteristics, status, economic position, etc., which unite them and distinguish them from others? Do peyotists belong to a distinct socio-economic group? The answers come from data procured in the field concerning 1000 Indians, the total adult population in the communities where peyote was most enthusiastically accepted.

As one would expect in a group which aboriginally recognized distinction solely on the basis of personality and achievement, the Washo and Northern Paiute have no mechanism for class or group social status. Individuals are today, as formerly, judged according to their ability. Therefore, personal performance is the one practicable criterion upon which categories of social participation might be established. Besides determining the number of adherents to the cult, information was obtained concerning financial status, willingness to work, use of alcoholic drinks, activity in Christian missions, shamanism, election to tribal councils, and degree of Indian blood. Personal observations were supplemented by the opinions of Carson Agency social workers; merchants who trade with Indians at Fallon, Colville, and Woodfords; Indian Service doctors at Wellington, Yerington, and Bishop; and the subagent at Fallon Reservation. These people went over lists of Indians in their vicinities, checking those outstanding for the characteristics here listed. There was no important disagreement when two or more people appraised the same individual.

The results of this count, presented in full in table 3 in Appendix III, show that the peyote cult attracted a representative percentage of the population. Neither the member group nor the nonmember group have in common any social traits which distinguish them from each other. For example, 5.3 per cent of the nonpeyotists and 5.7 per cent of the peyotists were outstandingly prosperous; 1.7 per cent of the nonpeyotists and 2.0 per cent of the peyotists were noted for not drinking; 1.3 per cent of the nonpeyotists and 2.0 per cent of the peyotists were or had been shamans; 13.1 per cent and 10.9 per cent respectively of the nonpeyotists and peyotists were of mixed blood.[*]

Were it possible to psychoanalyze a representative sample of the cult members and its opponents, we might find personality types peculiar to each group in meaningful percentages. Probably, however, we should find great differences within each component of the society, and also numerous similarities between the two. Although the behavior and history of some individuals seem to explain why they react

[*] Some correlation between social status and acceptance of new culture elements has been reported. Shimkin tells me that although the peyotists constitute only about 30 per cent of Wind River Shoshone population, they make up over 50 per cent of the participants in the Episcopalian mission, the Ghost Dance, the Sun Dance, and the tribal council. They belong to the half of the tribe which can be designated as participators, in contrast to the half of nonparticipators. It is difficult to say which is cause, which effect, but such a correlation certainly suggests a causal relationship. Phillco Nash writes (p. 441) that those who joined the 1870 Ghost Dance on the Klamath Reservation could be placed in a single category: those who attempted to accept white culture and were economically disappointed. They constituted a group apart from both those who resisted innovation and the agency Indian employees who made a successful reorientation. Barnett concludes (pp. 27–28) that the culturally maladjusted—the mixed-bloods, widows, invalids, etc.—unite to form a recognizable section of Hupa society which has espoused the Shaker religion. Jenks (101–107) wrote that mixed-bloods develop peculiar attitudes which place them in the vanguard in accepting new culture traits. [See ca. 116, p. 123-Aw.]

Washo NT20

W 103

42) Daolulehlehk - means "Fire Makes Red Rock", the name for the eroded bluffs of red colored earth which can be seen from Highway 395 at the Red Rock turn-off.

43) Daogépehm - means "Like a Cut-bank", and is the name for Dog Valley grade where ice water springs are located on the county road.

W 103 124

Harry Wilson, in his interview, tended to proceed geographically from Doyle to a point south and east of the Nevada State Prison in his place names. This is particularly true for items 31 through 40. It was neither possible to get him to be more precise, nor to get him to go to the places physically. For these reasons these geographic places are not more accurately located. He could not give a name for Long Valley or for Long Valley Creek which flows into Honey Lake.

W N 114 131

These notes on Northern Washo ethnogeography tend to substantiate the contention of the Honey Lake Paiute that their territory extends to Doyle and that of the Washo begins at Doyle and extends southward. Had Harry Wilson known of Washo villages north of Doyle there is no reason to believe that he would have neglected to mention them. In fact, special interrogation was made at the time to urge him to give any information concerning names for villages and physiographic features in the Honey Lake region. The result was limited to his providing a name for Honey Lake, Hot Springs Mountain, and Fort Sage Mountain, all prominent physiographic features near his home. Village names and locations are conspicuously absent in his presentation. This does not deny the fact that the Washo used portions of the Honey Lake Valley, but it very strongly suggests that their use was with the consent of the Honey Lake Paiute who held title to the region.

W [124] N [423] W N [648]